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THE ECONOMIC BASIS OF AUTONOMY IN THE VAL D'AOSTA, ITALY

AUBREY DIEM
State University Teachers College, Potsdam, New York

The Val d'Aosta, one of the four autonomous regions of Italy, has maintained its unique cultural character thru the centuries. The major geographic reasons for this are threefold; physical, cultural and historical. Aosta is isolated from the rest of Italy by alpine massifs; the French language has been the rallying point for the Valdotaine; and the region can be included with those areas of Europe, from the Mediterranean Sea to the northwest, that have acted as a shatter belt from the time of the disruption of the Carolingian Empire (Fig. 1 and 2).

Today Aosta has its own government functioning much in the manner of the state governments in relation to the federal system of the United States. The valley is responsible for such things as maintaining schools, forests, roads, the local police, and Gran Paradiso National Park. The maintenance of this autonomy would be impossible without revenue from the numerous resources and industries located in the Val d'Aosta.

A conflict exists between the central government in Rome and the autonomous regional government in Aosta. The Aostans feel that too much tax revenue is leaving the valley for purposes of supporting the poorer provinces of Italy. On the other hand the central government contends that the Val d'Aosta, as a part of Italy, must assume its share of the financial burden.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the economic geographic factors which enable the Val d'Aosta to continue its present position within the framework of the Italian government.

The region is well supplied with natural resources. Iron ore, anthracite, gravel, slate, marble, mineral water and water for electrical power are found within the 2,000 square miles of the valley (Fig. 3).

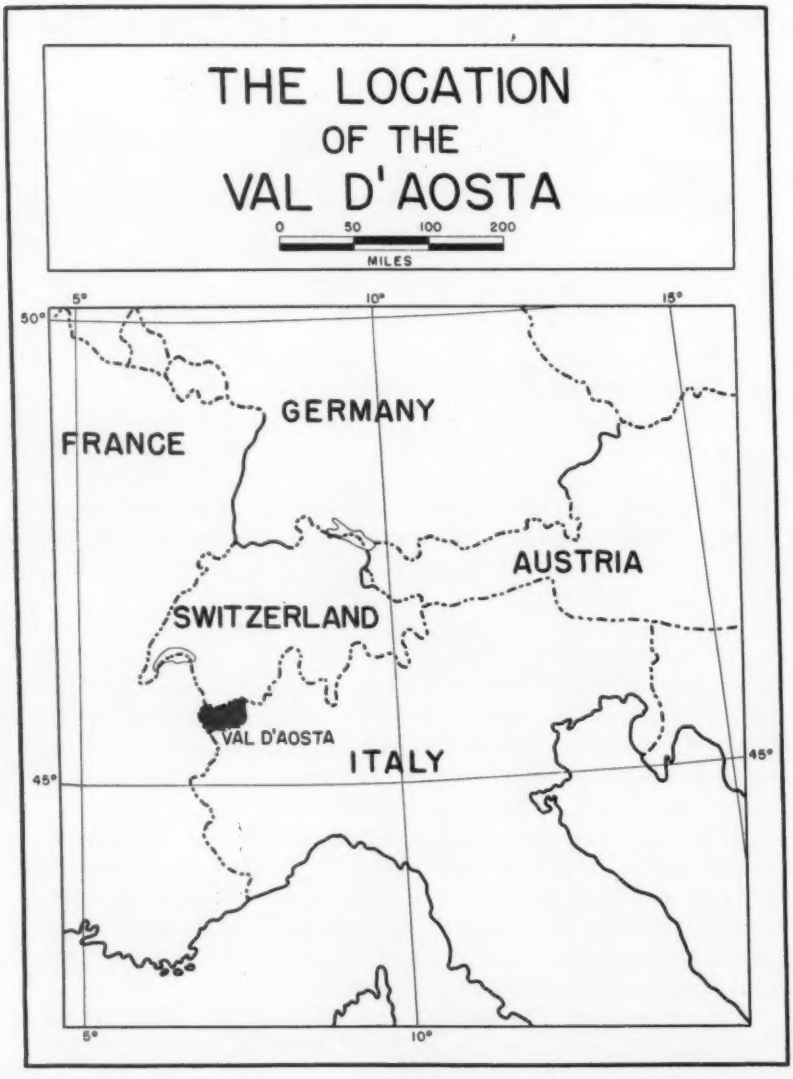
THE LOCATION
OF THE
VAL D'AOSTA
0 50 100 200
MILES
5°
10°
15°
50°
45°
GERMANY
FRANCE
AUSTRIA
SWITZERLAND
VAL D'AOSTA
ITALY

Fig. 1

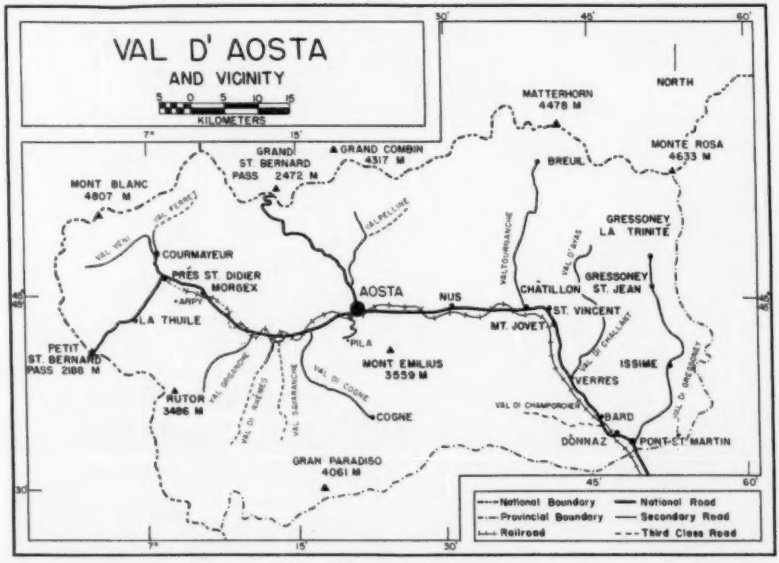

FIG. 2

The iron ore mine at Cogne is the most important single factor in the economic life of the valley. Seven-hundred to one-thousand men work two to three shifts in the mine (depending on the need for ore) while seven-thousand persons are employed in the steel factory in the city of Aosta which utilizes this ore. The mine, at an altitude of approximately 8,000 feet is one of the highest major mines of Europe and the most important in Italy. A cable car leaving from the 5,000 foot level in Cogne carries the miners to work in ten minute shifts. The ore is a magnetite of close to 55 percent iron content, ranking next to Swedish ore in quality. Three hundred and fifty thousand tons are mined annually and transported 8.5 miles to the factory at Aosta by means of cable car and narrow gauge railway[1] (Fig. 4).

At La Thuile close to the Petit St. Bernard Pass, an anthracite mine, employing eleven-hundred men is the next most important mineral deposit in the valley. This mine, together with the one at Cogne and the factory at Aosta, make up the "Societa Cogne," an Italian state monopoly. About 70,000 tons of poor quality anthra-

[1] G. Nicco, "Panorama Economico della Regione, Cave e Minere," *Repubblica Democratica*, II-8, December, 1947, p. 13.

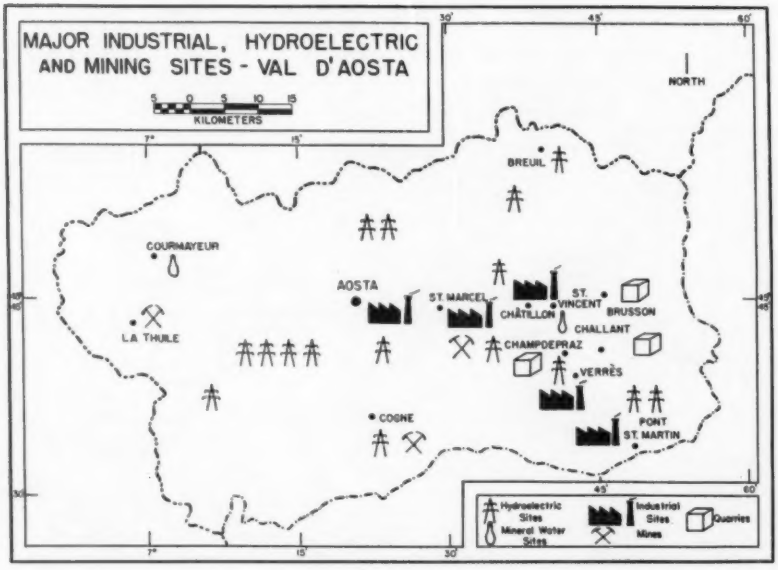

Fig. 3

cite are mined annually and transported to the main rail line at Morgex.[2] Some of this anthracite is used by the factory in Aosta and the remainder is sold elsewhere.

A pyrite and calco-pyrite mine at St. Marcel is the only other mine of significance. Fifty workers annually extract 12,000 tons of pyrite ore which goes to Verres and is transformed into sulfuric acid and pyrite ash.[3]

The other mines scattered thruout the valley, many of which have been worked since pre-Roman times, are very small and of little consequence to the Aostan economy. Of far greater importance are the gravel, slate and marble deposits. Gravel is taken from various locations along the Dora Baltea by portable dredges and is used for maintaining and building roads. The severe alpine climate hastens the deterioration of the high mountain roads and their maintenance is a constant problem. Slate is quarried in thin sheets and used for the picturesque shingles which cover the roofs of most Valdotaine structures. It provides a solid covering, impervious to

[2] Nicco, *op. cit.*, p. 13.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 13.

FIG. 4. A bucket carrying iron ore from the mine at Cogne to the steel factory in Aosta.

the action of freezing rains and snows. At Brussan, Champdepraz and Challant are marble quarries from which a valuable green stone is cut and sold to the rest of Italy and parts of Europe.

Many industrial enterprises have located in the valley because of the prevalence of minerals and abundance of hydroelectric energy. The largest and most prominent factory is the "Societa Cogne's" steel plant in Aosta, which utilizes Cogne ore, coal from La Thuile, France and Belgium, nickel from Canada and chromite from Asia Minor to produce 10,000 tons of cast iron, 10,000 tons of steel, and 2,000 tons of steel alloys per month.[4] The plant operates 24 hours a day and 52 weeks a year sending finished products: cast iron, nickel, chrome, tungsten, cobalt and vanadium steels, to the United States and to the automobile factories of Turin and Milan. The factory payroll is the basis of the economic life of the 25,000 inhabitants of the city of Aosta.

The steel factory at Pont St. Martin, second in economic significance, employs one-thousand workers. It utilizes scrap steels

[4] Enrico Pareyson, "Industria e Commercio nella Valle d'Aosta," *Repubblica Democratica*, II-8, December, 1947, p. 28.

and produces 800 tons of steel per month.[5] Smaller factories manufacture rayon at Chatillon, chemicals at St. Marcel and aluminum, fertilizer and cotton thread at Verres.

The abundance of hydro-energy was cited as an important factor in drawing industry to the valley. Most of the electricity is produced under private ownership by S.I.P. (Societa Idroelectrica Piemonte) and is transmitted to Turin and Milan. There is also a reciprocal agreement between France, Switzerland and Italy where these countries will export electricity to one another in case of need.

Extensive glacial erosion has facilitated construction of high head hydro installations thruout the main and side valleys. Two large scale projects are being completed in Valgrisanche and Valpelline to compliment the 63 hydro stations now operating in the valley. Annual production in 1954 was 1,757,000,000 KWH, compared to 6,374,000,000 KWH in Lombardy, the largest provincial producer, and 29,000,000,000 KWH generated in all of Italy.[6]

The industrial picture of the valley would not be complete without mentioning such works as canning, bottling, leather and lumber, all of which contribute to the stability and diversity of the economy. For an isolated mountain area, the Val d'Aosta is fairly well industrialized with nearly 10,000 persons securing direct employment from this means.

Of all the economic factors in the valley, tourism has an almost unlimited potential. The splendid alpine scenery, international ski sites, stately Roman and medieval ruins, thermal baths, casino at St. Vincent and unique political character should attract tourists in increasing numbers (Fig. 5).

A cable car system of three stages will soon carry passengers from Courmayeur over the Mont Blanc Massif to Chamonix in France. This will be the only place in the world where a cable car will connect two countries. When the proposed tunnel under Mont Blanc is completed sometime in 1961 connecting the same areas, year round access to the valley from all of Europe will be assured along a new Paris, Geneva, Rome route[7] (Fig. 6).

The agricultural attainments of the Val d'Aosta have been ac-

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

[6] *Annuario Statistica Italiano*, Rome, 1955, p. 190.

[7] "Paris Vote for Mt. Blanc Tunnel Exhilarates Tourist-Wise Geneva," *The New York Times*, January 26, 1957, p. 12.

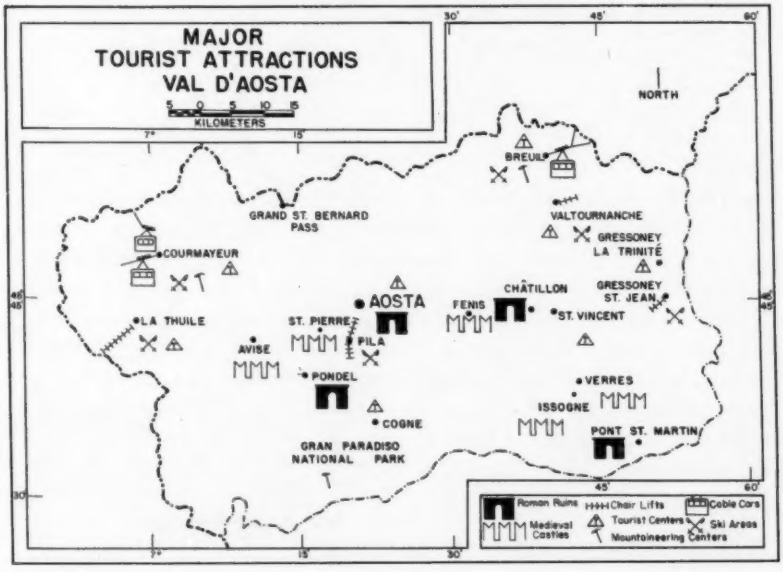

FIG. 5

complished in spite of severe geographical hardships. The soils are poor, rainfall is low, and there is very little flat land, yet 50 percent of the 83,500 inhabitants of the area derive their livelihood from agriculture.[8] The soils have been built up thru repeated manuring and drought conditions alleviated by an elaborate net of irrigation ditches which utilize the melt waters of the surrounding glaciers. Production is limited to fruit and vine culture, some grain and the raising of cattle. Of the 525,000 acres which make up the agrarian and forests lands of the valley, approximately 45 per cent is in pasture and permanent meadow, 4 per cent in crop cultivation, 1 per cent in vine and fruit cultivation, 20 per cent uncultivated and 30 per cent in forest.[9]

Dairy production is very important with about 46,000 pounds of Fontina cheese and 8,800 pounds of butter produced annually.[10] However, much importation of food is necessary to supplement the

[8] Renato Nouchy, "Panorama Economico della Regions Agricoltura, Zootecnica e Foreste," *Repubblica Democratica*, II-8, December, 1947, p. 11.

[9] *Caratteri Geofisici della Valle d'Aosta*, Ufficio Commercio e Industria, Regione Autonoma della Valle d'Aosta, unpublished data, 1954.

[10] *Ibid.*

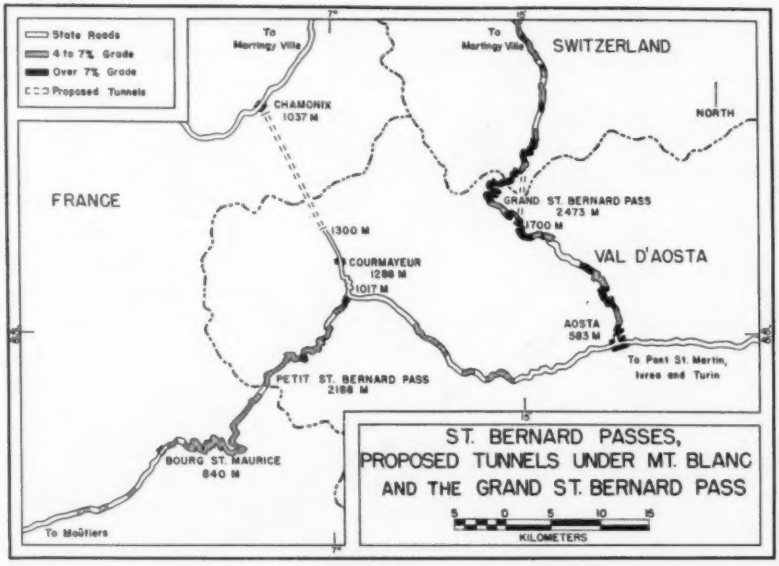

FIG. 6

local agriculture. Such items as oils, wine, cereals, slaughtered cattle, fruits and vegetables are brought into the valley in exchange for dairy products, chestnuts, fruits and hides.

We see that without this extensive economic foundation based on the geography of the area, the Val d'Oasta could not remain politically independent from the central Italian government. The location of ores, coal, water and their resultant industries and the products gained from cultivation of the land, provide thru sales and taxation, the funds necessary to maintain an autonomous government.

Altho the Val d'Aosta has achieved a degree of political autonomy from the central government in the post World War II period, it will probably never attain final separation. The region is too small and in spite of the many economic factors mentioned it is too dependent upon importation of staple foodstuffs from Piedmont and other parts of Italy. Valdotaine autonomy evolved out of physical, cultural and historical geographic factors. It can only be maintained thru the wise use of the resources located in the valley.

STATE STUDY THRU MAP INTERPRETATION

JOHN N. HOEFER AND BERNARD G. HASSEMER
Arrowhead High School

STUDYING THE STATE OF WISCONSIN AT ARROWHEAD HIGH SCHOOL

As part of an experiment in the fusion of geography and general science, a method was used which appears to have considerable merit since its inherent flexibility makes it adaptable to other states. The basic idea was to give the students a page of text which included instructions on how to use reference material in the construction of a map of a particular topic. This is much the same as an experiment in science in which a student follows the directions and observes the results, in this case maps were made and comparisons were drawn. Each student assembled a series of these Wisconsin maps in booklet form.[1] Suitable title, contents, bibliography, and objective pages were furnished.

THE BASIC UNIT

The basic unit consists of a series of eight maps dealing with various elements of Wisconsin's geography. The titles of the maps are as follows:

1. Landforms
2. Forest resources
3. Soils
4. Population density
5. Farm products
6. Mineral resources
7. Industrial areas
8. Major cities and rivers

With the variety of topics, each map necessitated its own approach, particularly with the reference material available. A description of each map follows.

1. The landform map was constructed by having the student generalize from a physiographic diagram. Emphasis was placed on the terminal moraines, driftless area, northern highlands, and the Superior and eastern lowlands. The mimeographed worksheet contained a brief summary of the physical geography and directions as to which landforms to draw and the color key to use.
2. The forest resource map was drawn by directing the student to the United States Department of Agriculture booklet,

[1] Persons wishing to examine a completed booklet may obtain a loan copy by writing to Mr. John N. Hoefer, Arrowhead High School, P. O., Hartland, Wisconsin.

What Does Forest Conservation Mean?, and by having him copy the forest, farm woodland, and farm and urban areas onto an outline map.

3. The soils worksheet was generalized because of the inherent complexity of the subject. The student was directed to look at a soils map. However, an overlay was prepared showing the distribution of soils classified under the headings good, fair, and non-agricultural. The student traced the distribution of these soils on an outline map.
4. The population density map was constructed on a county basis from sheets of statistical information containing the county area, population, and the density per square mile. These statistical sheets were furnished to the student for inclusion in his booklet. The worksheet omitted the densities of the first five counties so the student could have the experience of computing densities.

Next the student was guided to study the relationships between their maps: For example, the northern highlands coinciding with the forest area, poor soil, and low density of population. This section of the basic unit took one week to complete.

5. The industrial map was one of the more complicated because suitable reference materials were not available. First, the students were given eight industrial enclaves to outline and to label. Then the state was divided into areas of particular activities: resorting, mining, fruit growing, agriculture, and the extensive manufacturing area. The boundaries of these areas were described to the student by county lines in the text.
6. The farm products maps consisted of three flyleafs for corn, oats, and hay production. These were placed over a combination butter and cheese production map. Tables of all the statistical information were furnished the student so they could be included in the final booklet.
7. The minerals map was simple and was constructed by giving the student an overlay to trace. A reading assignment was made in a booklet entitled *Badger State.*
8. The major cities and rivers worksheet had a place for the student to list all of the cities with a population over 10,000. Then, the student was required to locate these on the outline map. The state highway map was used as a source of infor-

mation concerning both population and location. At the end of the unit each student was given a copy of the highway map to keep.

In evaluating the basic unit, the next time it is presented, the minerals map will be deleted and a rainfall map substituted. This gives the unit flexibility and makes it adaptable to other states, because the maps concerning the geography of a particular state may be made consistent with the topics of importance in that state.

METHOD OF OPERATION

The unit was presented thru five geography classes, and the two general science classes involved were fused with the geography class which met at that time. Thus a number of students spent twice as much time on the project, because there were two periods in which there were 60 students and two teachers. As part of the experiment a study was made to see the effect of hours spent per student, and to determine whether there were any significant differences in the work of those students who had spent double the time as compared with those who had spent only one period.

A progress chart was kept for each student, and as a student finished one worksheet, his work was evaluated before he was given the succeeding sheet. Individual differences were recognized and the additional optional activities were provided:

1. Some students worked as laboratory assistants to aid other students.
2. Others constructed large wall maps on topics contained in the basic unit.
3. Students did additional research within the area of the unit, such as constructing maps not in the basic unit.
4. Some students showing slow progress were given individual help and those in the fused groups were recycled in using their additional time.

The school's "all purpose" room was used so that the tables there would give plenty of room for materials. Sixteen tables were used, along with a supply table and three large project tables. A standard was placed on each table to aid the students in becoming acquainted with the physical set-up. There were two series of four maps; while the first series was being studied, there were actually four different maps being covered at the same time at four different tables. This disbursed the supply of reference materials and the

space involved allowed students to work individually, as well as in groups no larger than four. Since there were four maps being constructed at the same time a cycle was established, with charts recording the progress of the students. During the second week the second series of four maps were presented in the same manner.

Before starting the unit the purpose and method of operation were explained to all students. The first day of operation was one of administration. The students were quick to comprehend the system and thereafter they worked systematically thru the series of maps. At the beginning of each period a short explanation concerning the major aspect of a map was given, correlating it where possible with the previous one in the series. Towards the end of the unit the history, biology, and agriculture teachers participated by giving lectures in their areas of specialization in relation to the basic unit. These were tape recorded for later review by the students. An objective test was given which was analyzed according to each topic covered and to the test results of groups of sophomores and eighth graders not involved in the project.

Source of Materials

A major element in the success of the project was the availability of reference material in quantities, varying from 25 copies of booklets to 150 copies of the state highway map. The following is a list of places where materials were obtained:

1. United States Department of Agriculture
2. Wisconsin Department of Agriculture
3. Wisconsin Department of Conservation
4. Wisconsin Geological and Natural History Survey
5. Wisconsin Highway Department
6. Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction
7. Waukesha County Superintendent of Schools

The departments contacted furnished the requested number of materials free of charge and provided assistance.

Evaluation of the Experiment

The entire unit was presented in three weeks. Thruout, there was a great deal of interest on the part of the students. The entire project appeared worthwhile and successful. However, the following recommendations were made and are being acted upon.

1. A field trip to Baraboo, Wisconsin to observe landforms will be incorporated into the unit.

2. A control group will be established for the fused groups because the test results showed no appreciable differences between the students who were in the fused groups and those who were not.
3. A greater number of staff members will be utilized as resource persons.

JAMESTOWN AND THE MID-ATLANTIC COAST: A GEOGRAPHIC RECONSIDERATION

ERICH ISAAC
Temple University, Philadelphia

The "Jamestown Year" has stimulated renewed interest in the settlement history of the Eastern seaboard. The tradition of such interest on the part of historians is an extremely long one, since this area has been subjected to the most intensive study of all parts of this continent. No comparable quantity or calibre of work has been offered by historical geographers, who have markedly neglected the settlement history of the Eastern Seaboard. Certainly more than one geographer, whose task it is to teach the historical geography of the United States, has felt the lack of an approach by which to make the apparently disparate attempts at settlement of the East Coast part of a geographically comprehensible pattern. This neglect on the part of geographers is the more surprising in view of the successful studies undertaken by historical geographers especially in the western and southwestern parts of the United States.

The cause may be in part the largely accidental location of the chief proponents of historical geography in the western states. Moreover, the very richness of the source material, as well as of the available historical treatments, may have acted as a deterrent. Geographers have perhaps felt that in the abundance of available studies their particular contribution would be lost.

Despite the great number of historical studies centering on the Eastern Seaboard, there are several questions which have not been sufficiently explored and which raise problems properly answered by the historical geographer. For example, why was Jamestown located where it was? Why, moreover, after a century and a half of European trans-Atlantic voyages, were there no permanent settlements on the whole mid-Atlantic coast, and when settlement

finally came, as at Jamestown, why was the southern part of that coast chosen rather than the more northerly and salubrious region of the Chesapeake Bay country and the long coastal stretches to the north of it? While the location of a primary settlement may often be ascribed in part to accident, closer investigation usually shows that accident was less important than other factors which are capable of explanation.

For almost a century and a half European voyages to the American continent avoided the mid-Atlantic coast. These voyages terminated in the southeast, the northeast, or else altogether bypassed the North American continent and went south to the Caribbean, to Central or South America. Political and economic forces, as well as auspicious natural conditions accounted for the prior settlement of the southeast and northeast and avoidance of the mid-Atlantic coast.

French and Spanish Settlement in the Southeast

The Spaniards were the first to come to the southeast. Spain was thwarted in its attempt to reach the East Indies via the route around Africa and therefore fell to probing westward across the Atlantic in order to arrive there from a direction that was not controlled by its Portugese rival. The treaty of Alcacovas of 1479 had established the Portugese claims to the Azores, Madeira and Cape Verde islands and confirmed the Portugese trade and exploration monopoly of Guinea and the East Indies.[1] The Portugese hold on the African coast, established by treaty and backed by hardy sailors, barred Spanish penetration to the Pacific and diverted Spain to a westward course of exploration which yielded to it the West Indies discovered by Columbus.

Spanish ships approached the Americas by the best sailing route across the Atlantic. They rode the North Equatorial current from east to west in an area where it is fed by the southeasterly currents off the west coast of Africa. The trade winds on this route provided fairly reliable power to their ships. The combination of wind and current is at its best between the African and American shores where the Atlantic is narrow. Not far from South American shores, the westward moving North Equatorial current is reinforced by a branch of the South Equatorial current and they continue jointly into the Caribbean Sea. Wind and current

[1] Wesley Frank Craven, *The Southern Colonies in the Seventeenth Century, 1607-1689*, Baton Rouge, 1949, p. 2.

and a short route across the Atlantic facilitated Spanish sailing to American destinations. Similarly, the North Atlantic atmospheric and oceanic circulation systems were useful on the return voyage. The North Equatorial current merges in the Caribbean with the Yucatan Channel Current and with the Antilles Current, a union which represents the beginning of the Gulf Stream system. The two branches of that system, the Florida Current and the North Atlantic Drift, which move eastward, coincided with the Spanish route home. The winds were favorable on that trip also, for at least in the second half of the homeward voyage, they sailed in the prevailing westerlies.[2]

The occupation of the West Indies provided Spain with island bases for a spectacular expansion into Mexico and Peru and for rapid entrenchment on the Central American Main. The success of these ventures signified a shift from mere coastal exploration and island colonization to the exploration of the continental Americas proper. This shift of interest was not confined to South and Central America. By the middle of the sixteenth century numerous attempts had been made to explore and settle the southeastern part of North America. These attempts were generally abortive, perhaps because the Spanish heart was not really in North American ventures as long as wealth and power, prestige and missionary success rewarded it elsewhere.

When Spanish settlement in America finally came, it remained marginal to the established Caribbean and Central American colonies. Settlements persisted for some time, but only because their continued existence was deemed vital to the Caribbean. The Spaniards did not move very far north on the Atlantic coast; some futile attempts to settle as far north as the Bay of Santa Maria, as the Spaniards called the Chesapeake Bay, failed. The story of their failure can be quickly recounted. In 1525 De Ayllon settled at "San Miguel" in Virginia. The settlement was destroyed and its location is unknown. The same fate befell the mission settlement of Padre Bautista de Segura who in 1568 landed either on the Potomac or Rappahannock river.[3] If there were other Spanish attempts in the Bay area, we do not know of them.

[2] On oceanic circulation see H. U. Sverdrup, Martin W. Johnson and Richard H. Fleming, *The Oceans, Their Physics, Chemistry and General Biology*, New York, 1946, pp. 605-755.

[3] Nathaniel Claiborne Hale, *Virginia Venturer—A Historical Biography of William Claiborne 1600-1677*, Richmond, 1951, pp. 14-15.

Why Settle at All in North America?

As far as Spain was concerned it was the threat of a rival from North American bases menacing the Spanish sea routes that jarred it into reaching with determination into North America.[4] The first challenge to Spanish monopoly of the Western Hemisphere came from France. Already in 1562 the French had established short-lived Port Royal on the Florida Coast and in 1564 they settled farther south and built Fort Caroline on the St. Johns River. The French settlements on the flank of the Spanish homeward route were not only a threat to Spanish homeward-bound shipping but also involved a flaunting of papal authority, in that they disregarded the sanctioned Spanish monopoly in the Western Hemisphere.

In 1565 the Spaniards destroyed the French settlement in Florida. With one stroke France was almost eliminated as an imperial rival in America. Contributing factors in this were the internecine religious strife which had progressively eliminated Huguenot influence in France and contributed to diminishing French overseas activities, and France's preoccupation with European conquest and expansion to the Rhine and Alps. Conversely it was the relative freedom from European commitments that gave Spain's other imperial rival, England, a tremendous advantage in overseas ventures.

It might have been expected that the Spanish dominion over the southeastern Atlantic region would as a matter of course have channeled English overseas expansion to coastal regions as yet unclaimed. The opposite was true rather than acting as a deterrent, Spanish occupancy of the Caribbean and the southeast attracted the English to the same areas, leaving the mid-Atlantic coast for many years outside their scope of interest.

Early English Voyages to America

The English soon discovered that the southern route, which had been pioneered by the Spanish, offered economic rewards to them as well. In fact the rich Spanish possessions were the most enticing of all prospects. Tropical areas generally offered greater commerical gain than could be hoped for in the Middle Atlantic or

[4] Herbert E. Bolton, "Defensive Spanish Expansion and the Significance of the Borderland," *The Trans-Mississippi West, Papers Read at a Conference Held at the University of Colorado,* Boulder, 1930, p. 15.

on the New England coast. English sailors realized soon enough that "Negroes were good merchandise in Hispaniola, and that they might easily be had upon the Guinea coast."[5]

The Spanish possessions offered additional incentives to English quasi-traders and part time pirates. Spanish rule had embittered the natives and we find them working in league with Francis Drake and later on with John Oxenham.[6] A third incentive for southern voyages was Spanish naval weakness, extending an open invitation to English predators. Spanish naval tradition was Mediterranean and altho its ocean going vessels, as, for example, the Manilla Galleons, served well enough for cargoes and return loads of colonial output, they were no warships. This situation did not change until after the defeat of the Armada, for "The Armada was not the last but the first (of Spanish) oceanic fighting fleets."[7] Neither in tactics nor in equipment were Spanish ships a match for Elizabethan sailing vessels.[8] The temptation of easy prizes attracted Englishmen to the southern route. On one occasion at least, the almost traditional preying on Spanish shipping diverted an English ship from a more important errand. Greenville's arrival with relief for the Roanoke settlement was delayed by his predilection for chasing after Spanish vessels on the way.[9]

English Voyages to the Northeast

Where English overseas interest in America was not motivated by the presence of the Spanish colonies and the incentives they offered, it was directed to the other extreme end of the Atlantic seaboard—the northeast. In the northern waters English sailors had a relatively free hand. Philip II had more or less acquiesced in the early attempts of the Muscovy Company to find a northeastern route to the Pacific. By implication this exempted the northern Atlantic coast from the realm of Spanish monopolistic colonization and trade.[10] The vain pioneering efforts on the northeastern passage were followed by hopes in England for an easy northwestern passage. Sir Humphrey Gilbert became a leading fig-

[5] A. L. Rowse, *The Expansion of Elizabethan England*, London and New York, pp. 172-179.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 180.

[7] G. M. Trevelyan, *History of England*, Doubleday Anchor edition, Garden City, N.Y., 1954, p. 104.

[8] G. M. Trevelyan, *English Social History*, London, 1948, pp. 195-197.

[9] Rowse, p. 217.

[10] Craven, *Southern Colonies*, p. 15.

ure in this scheme and propagated the notion of a transit from the Hudson Bay area to somewhere in the vicinity of the Columbia River. Frobisher's ships probed along the northeast coast between 1576 and 1578. Following him John Davis led three successive voyages north, in 1585, 1586 and 1587, reporting of his last voyage: "I have been in 73 degrees finding the sea all open and forty leagues between land and land. The passage is most probable, the execution easy."[11] Reports of this kind only strengthened efforts to find a northeastern passage. Indeed Davis' achievement was soon capped by Sir Thomas Smythe, who sailed north as far as the Davis Strait, 78°.[12]

Summing up, we find that during a century of British voyages to America the destinations were determined by two major considerations and perhaps influenced by a third. The interest in the southern part of North America and in Central and South America was sustained by the presence of Spanish colonies, and the trade and loot these offered. In the north the idea of a northeastern passage proved a powerful magnet. Furthermore, the conviction of the existence of a mysterious undiscovered great continent in the southern hemisphere, Terra Australis,[13] and the lure of Pacific wealth and trade diverted attention from the North American coast proper. There were, of course, English fishermen on the Grand Banks, but on the whole Elizabethan seafarers showed as much ingenuity in getting around America as in getting to it.

In the latter part of the sixteenth century it dawned upon the English that America was a prize to be owned rather than an obstacle to be circumnavigated. Whereas formerly claims to American possessions were advanced on the basis of prior discovery, a more useful doctrine of effective occupation was now put forth. The English realized that a "Prior Discovery" principle barred them from many of the more desirable American areas. Thus the doctrine of effective occupation was used in external diplomatic relations with Spain as well as in resolving conflicting claims of Englishmen.[14] This change in attitude introduced a period where the dual motives of settlement and trade superseded the motives

[11] Richard Hakluyt, *The Principal Navigations*, Everyman's Library edition, New York, 1910, V. p. 317.

[12] Rowse, p. 196.

[13] James A. Williamson, "The Exploration of the Pacific," *Cambridge History of the British Empire*, New York, 1929, VII, Pt. I, Australia, 24 ff.

[14] Craven, *The Southern Colonies*, p. 14.

of trade and piracy. The growing stress on colonization provided the setting for the Jamestown venture and ultimately, for the settlement of the mid-Atlantic coast.

COLONIES IN LIEU OF TRADING VOYAGES

Toward the end of the sixteenth century a new, virtually self-made aristocracy began to appear on the English scene. The Welsh border and West country elite who had fought in Ireland and were taking part in the British colonization there played an increasingly important role in English overseas ventures.[15] It is likely that the Irish experience was an important factor in shifting the accent from mere piracy and occasional trade to planting and colonization. Men like Raleigh and Greenville, for example, were prominent in both Irish and trans-Atlantic ventures.

Colonization also seemed to answer the need for foreign markets. English merchants in various parts of the world labored under serious disadvantages. Dutch competition in Russia, monopolization of the Baltic trade by the Hansa, the hostility of Italian cities in the Mediterranean and similar restrictions elsewhere hampered English trade. "Our chief desire" wrote the younger Hakluyt "is to find out ample vent of our wollen cloth, the naturall comoditie of this our Realm."[16] America was supposedly able "to yelde unto us all the commodities of Europe, Affrica, and Asia, . . . and supplye the wantes of all our decayed trades."[17]

The development of the English wool industry and cloth trade had caused great social ills. The concentration of capital in the hands of rich farmers and landlords led to enclosures of open field for pasture. The evicted plowman had by the time of the great oceanic ventures formed the nucleus of a class of "sturdy beggars," "staff-strikers" and "rogues forlorn."[18] These uncomplimentary terms covered also the victims of seasonal unemployment in cloth manufacturing and other trades. Repeatedly overseas settlement was conceived of as an outlet for England's undesirable population. The adventurers of the London Company were to enlist the aid of the Lord Mayor of London by stressing the "mutually ad-

[15] Herbert L. Osgood, *The American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century*, New York, 1904, I, p. 5.

[16] Trevelyan, *History*, II, p. 31.

[17] Craven, *The Southern Colonies*, p. 42.

[18] Trevelyan, *History*, II, p. 31.

vantageous easing of the problem of the city's poor by assisted emigration to Virginia.''[19]

Southern Colonies Advocated

New attitudes to overseas ventures were of course still entangled with traditional ones. Even with the change of emphasis in favor of colonization, the tendency was to favor settlement on the southern Atlantic coast, traditionally a scene of English maritime activity. Arguments in favor of overseas colonization continued to point out the weakness and wealth of the Spanish possessions to be had, as it were, for the asking. As the younger Hakluyt put it:

> I mean first to begin with the West Indies as there to lay a chief foundation for his overthrow . . . Philip rather governeth in the West Indies by opinion than might.[20]

Altho not much is known about the 1578-79 voyage of Gilbert, and altho his patent gave him the right to discover and occupy in perpetuity only land not possessed by any Christian prince, his purpose seems to have been to ''establish a colony . . . fairly near to the West Indies and capable of being used as a base against Spain.''[21]

Other arguments for a southern settlement were also advanced. The elder Hakluyt argued in its favor on the grounds that colonies are useful when they supplement the production of the homeland. One ought to conquer a ''province in climate and soil of Italie, Spaine or the Islands from whence we receive our Wines and Oiles, and to man it, to plant it, and to keepe it, and to continue the making of Wines and Oiles able to serve England.''[22] As is well known, the writing of the elder and younger Hakluyt had an immense influence on the sixteenth century and post-Elizabethan expansion of England.

The Test of Theory at Roanoke

The Roanoke ventures, and the eventual settlement of Jamestown mark the first English settlement on the southern Atlantic coast. The tragic story of Roanoke is known. The first settlers were landed on the island among dangerous shoals and shallows which

[19] Craven, *The Southern Colonies*, p. 83.

[20] *The Original Writings and Correspondence of the Two Richard Hakluyts;* with an introduction and notes by Eva G. R. Taylor, Hakluyt Society, London, 1935, II, pp. 246-247.

[21] Craven, *The Southern Colonies*, p. 33.

[22] *The Original Writings*, ed. Taylor, II, p. 333.

were exposed to the hurricanes of the North Carolina coast. Yet the site selection apparently corresponded to Hakluyt's theory of primary colonization.

> Let the first seate be chosen on the seaside so as . . . you may have your own navy within Bay, river or lake

and, he continues

> so as the enemy shall be forced to lie in open rode abroade without . . . upon an Islande in the mouth of some notable river or upon the poynt of the lande entering into the river.[23]

Roanoke failed, but the advice remained part of the stock equipment on which colonial ventures drew. It was followed at Jamestown and later in the first settlements of the Chesapeake Bay.

Great as is the gap in time between the Roanoke experiment and the subsequent settlement of the Bay, the failure of Roanoke may indirectly have staved off an earlier occupation of the Bay by the Spaniards. Had settlement on Roanoke taken root "the Spaniard would have tracked them down and that might have led to Spanish occupation of the coast up to the Chesapeake Bay."[24] Indeed, as early as 1588, the Spaniards had realized the danger offered them by English settlements on the Chesapeake Bay. Pedro Menendez Margens sent a ship to the Bay in order to establish a fort. The disappearance of the Roanoke colony rendered this unnecessary.

The Test of Theory at Jamestown

The history of settlement at Jamestown is generally familiar. The London Company instructed its settlers to locate their settlement some distance upstream, at a point suitable for westward penetration inland, and of course at a sheltered locale for defense against other Europeans.[25] These instructions, which had been prepared in consultation with Hakluyt,[26] were followed, and James Fort was soon put into defensive condition. Thomas Dale, the acting governor, in 1611 built a well fortified "town" high above "James City Island" at Henrico and further settlements were established on the lands of evicted Indians on both sides of the James.

[23] Richard Hakluyt, *The Principal Navigations*, ed. Ernest Rhys, Everyman's Library New York, 1907, VIII, p. 142.

[24] Rowse, p. 221.

[25] Alexander Brown, *Genesis of the United States*, Boston, 1891, I, pp. 79-85.

[26] Rowse, p. 227.

Yet even at that stage of settlement, there were still opinions abroad which tended to encourage settlement farther south rather than in the Bay. Despite the famous exploratory voyage of Captain John Smith in 1608, for a time thereafter the coast that extended southward continued to hold more interest than settlement in the Bay. The assumption that the more a land "inclined to the southe" the greater its promise was still current. Furthermore there was still some hope of locating survivors of the lost Roanoke settlements, as well as a desire to test reports of rich copper mines in the south.[27] Attempts at colonization in the northeast were generally abortive and the first successful settlement in that region was not established until 1620.

Reasons for Settlement in the Central and Northern Chesapeake Bay Region

Early plantations of settlers belonging to the Jamestown colony on the lower eastern shore of the Chesapeake Bay signal the new attention given to the middle and upper Bay as a result of steadily worsening relations with the Indian in the wake of Jamestown. The tribes associated in the Powhatan confederation pursued a fluid and shifting pattern of warfare, overt peace, and covert intrigue. A policy crystallized among the settlers aimed at breaking up Powhatan's confederation. Remote tribes were set against Powhatan by bribery and promise, and his own tribes were placed in a directly tributary relationship to the English. This policy failed to subdue the Indians. With continued white encroachment the situation worsened steadily until at last in 1622 the pent-up hostility came to a head and erupted into a fearful war, the "Great Massacre." It closed with finality the chapter of attempts at white and Indian rapprochement in the Jamestown area.

The impact of the massacre explains to a large degree the direction that trading ventures and associated plantations were subsequently to take. Westward advance had been stopped by ferocious Indian resistance. The settlers, for their part, "proclaimed a policy of relentless warfare upon the natives and year after year implemented it by organized destruction of towns and crops and by other actions calculated to harass the Indians and keep them on the defensive."[28] Consequently the inland frontier around Jamestown

[27] Craven, *The Southern Colonies*, p. 78.
[28] *Ibid.*, pp. 172-173.

was a turbulent zone and not an area of trade or advancing settlements. Instead traders pushed north and eastward into the Chesapeake Bay.

SETTLEMENT OF THE MID-ATLANTIC COAST

The successful establishment of settlements going beyond mere trading posts in the central and northern reaches of the Chesapeake Bay signifies the drawing of the mid-Atlantic Coast into the orbit of English settlement. Incentive for penetration of the Bay came from the beaver trade and traders from Jamestown and its satellite settlements soon ascended the Bay. In the early 1620's John Pory reported that traders in the Bay numbered nearly 100.[29] The upper bay region, at the root of the ramifying Susquehanna system, which tapped via portages many Indian beaver supply areas held the key to trade. The hope was entertained that by settlement in the upper Chesapeake "the Trade of the French in Canada and Quebec might be brought down that way into Virginia. . . ."[30]

The establishment of a variety of ephemeral trading posts did not constitute colonization. The motivation for establishing more permanent settlements was partly political. The traders distrusted the fickle favor of the Jamestown Council and Governor, who were the sources of the traders' licenses, and saw the wisdom of occupying bases sufficiently far from Virginia to be in practice independent from the interfering political intrigue of Jamestown.

The problems of establishing a settlement in the upper Bay can be illustrated by reference to the 1631 settlement of Kent Island, located due east across the Bay from Annapolis. Kent Island was the first settlement in present day Maryland. The traders of the island faced a logistical problem; the provisioning of a plantation and trading station such as Kent Island with goods for consumption and for trading meant lengthening the voyage of a ship out of England by more than a 100 miles beyond the common Virginia destinations. After the ship had delivered its goods, it would make a return trip to Virginia with a cargo largely consisting of bundled beaver skins, which were of small bulk, however valuable. Tho additional cargo for the homeward leg of the voyage might be taken on in Virginia, the fact remained that the ship's space was not

[29] Archives of Maryland, *Proceedings of the Council 1667-1687/8*, V, p. 158.
[30] Claiborne vs. Clobery," *Maryland Historical Magazine*, XXVI (1931), p. 386.

fully used for nearly 150 miles. Furthermore the uncertainties of Indian trade might in the worst case send a ship back without even a token load of beaver skins. All this could be solved only if other economic goods were available to fill the ship's holds.

The island's predominantly pine forest offered one commodity. "Good sound Pitch Pine" was highly valued for shipbuilding,[31] indeed more valued for that purpose than any other wood. American oak, in the opinion of the time "did not come up to our English oak in goodness."[32] Hence a scarcity of oak on Kent Island was no deterrent to its settlement. At any rate, we know that Kent Island trees were extensively used for export during the early settlement period. Eventually an export of pipe staves from the island developed.[33] Salt too made up part of the return cargo of ships calling on Kent Island.[34]

While a 150 years elapsed before the first settlement in the upper Chesapeake Bay, when settlement did take place, a special urgency was attached to it. This pressure stemmed from Dutch activities on the Delaware. For the Dutch had, in April 1631, established a new settlement, Swaanendael on Lewes Creek, near the Delaware. Altho this settlement was destroyed by Indians the same year, still another attempt at settlement was made in 1632 by De Vries, showing that the Dutch had not given up. It was important then to divert the Indian trade from the Dutch to the English thru the establishment of English settlements in the area.

By this time too the growth of New England settlement guaranteed to some degree the survival of Bay settlements as economically viable units. New England became a market for their produce —corn, particularly, constituted an important commodity in the Bay's trade with the northeastern coast.

Conclusion

In analyzing the reasons for the relatively late date of English settlement of the mid-Atlantic coast we have not used any sources foreign to the historian. On the contrary, the historian's presentation has been heavily relied on. It is not the nature of the source

[31] Arthur P. Middleton, *Tobacco Coast, A Maritime History of Chesapeake Bay in the Colonial Era, Newport News*, 1953, 165 ff.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 224.

[33] Archives of Maryland, *Proceedings of the Council, 1667-1687/8*, V, p. 171.

[34] "Claiborne vs. Clobery," *Maryland Historical Magazine*, XXVIII, (1933), p. 31.

material that divides historical geography from history, but the different values placed by the historian and geographer on the same sources. In their continued quest for meaningful interpretations of past events, historians have tended to analyze the past in terms of social, economic, political or cultural development. In the wealth of such historical writing the geographic background is often blurred. In focusing upon the problem of location and other geographic factors the geographer can make his contribution to the understanding of the historical process.

THE SEMINAR AND ITS MODIFICATIONS AS TEACHING METHODS IN GEOGRAPHY

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The seminar in its pure form is characterized by a group of students, usually fewer than 15, engaged, under direction of a professor, in original research. Results of their investigations are formally presented by them and are critically analyzed by members of the class for logical development, accuracy, relevancy of facts and data, and soundness of the conclusions. This teaching method can be used in such upper division courses as political geography, economic geography, and the regional courses. At this level, the students have already acquired some degree of sophistication and have mastered some of the tools of investigation and techniques of presentation, such as an appreciation of the value of maps to assist in illuminating geographic concepts.

Proper use of the seminar requires close supervision by the instructor. The instructor must provide background in the preparation of bibliographies, research techniques, evaluation of evidence bearing on the research topics, report writing, and preparation of speakers' outlines to assure full development of topics. Also, class members must be taught to evaluate critically the statements and many broad generalizations to elicit clarification of those that seemingly require further examination.

Members of the class should be in part evaluated upon the basis of the types of questions they ask of the individual presenting a paper; for example, upon how the questions evoke additional development of pertinent aspects of the seminar report. The student

presenting his research should be evaluated to a great extent upon the completeness and support given the interpretations and conclusions arrived at in light of the evidence gathered for the paper.

The seminar can only function successfully when the reporter attains a very high level of academic achievement in his assigned area. He becomes an expert in a limited sense in a narrow field of knowledge. Other members of the class need not research the seminar topic in detail, but they must at least acquire a good general knowledge for effective participation following presentation of the report.

Symposium

The seminar can be modified in larger classes. A discussion leader can be seated at a table with five or six additional students, each of whom is responsible for developing some singular aspect of a topic. The instructor introduces the topical discussion during the first few minutes of the class period. The leader acts as the authority who rectifies errors of fact, faulty interpretations and conclusions, and fills in omissions of relevant material. Those class members not seated at the table should be invited to ask questions at the conclusion of either each report or at the conclusion of the whole series of presentations. This modified seminar might be more appropriately entitled a symposium.

In the symposium the leader and the participants should be provided with a bibliography of 10 to 12 references, a set of study questions, and some lesson objectives. This gives more assurance of attaining the desired learning outcomes, plus an ability to answer questions which will be posed by members of the class. On the other hand, only the individual presenting a paper in the pure seminar method need be given a bibliography, study questions and objectives; and if he does a competent job, he will go far beyond this initial guidance provided by the instructor.

The pure seminar has the material advantage over the symposium in producing academic attainment of a higher order. The symposium has the advantage of providing more leadership responsibilities—usually with some sacrifice of academic excellence.

"Broad Brush" Question

Another possible modification of the seminar is the "broad brush" question. For example, in a political geography course a

question might be, "What is the future of Eastern Europe in view of the schism that exists between the free world and the communist world?" Reoriented transportation patterns, collectivization of farms, communistic education, expanded industry, latent nationalism, and historical precedent all bear upon this question. Either the instructor or a student discussion leader could be used to guide development of the various facets of the question. One student might be asked to cover transportation; another, agriculture; and others, various other aspects already delineated. Each student should have researched the area sufficiently to cover all phases of the assigned topic. At the seminar meeting the instructor or discussion leader calls upon a student at random to discuss a particular phase of the general question. This approach tends to provide a better overall understanding of the various topics covered in a course than does the symposium which requires students to be responsible for but limited portions of general topics.

CONTEMPORARY ETHIOPIA

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Situated in the eastern Horn of Africa, just north of the Equator and with access to the Red Sea, Ethiopia, known in Europe as the Land of Prester John and then as Abyssinia, is slightly larger than the province of Ontario. Most of the country is rugged plateau having a general elevation of 6,500 feet. The peaks of its cool, humid highlands, reaching up to 15,000 feet above sea level, stand in sharp contrast to the peripheral deserts dropping below sea-level in the Danakil Depression, which is also one of the hottest regions of the world. The Great Rift Valley cuts deeply thru this highland mass, from the Red Sea in the northeast to the Kenya border in the southwest, and divides the country into two plateaus. The Ethiopian Plateau slopes north-westwards towards the Sudan and the Somalian Plateau slopes south-eastwards towards the Indian Ocean. Volcanoes have heaved up massive ridges. The Blue Nile, its tributaries and numerous other unexplored and unmapped torrents have gouged out unbelievably deep gorges and canyons. All the scenery of the Ethiopian Plateau, upon which the ancient

kingdom has centered for three millenniums, is massive, gigantic and formidable.[1]

The topography has naturally affected the varieties of climate and vegetation and the movements of men. Ethiopia is largely a deforested country. Heavy rains occur from June to September, with lighter rains in about February. Rainfall varies with the altitude; annual precipitation is over 1600 millimeters on the highlands.[2] Severe hailstorms are common at the 8,000 foot level and snow falls in the Semien Range. Temperatures at the capital, Addis Ababa (population estimated 450,000), may fall from a high of 85 degrees F. during the day to 40 degrees F. in the early morning.[3] In the capital city the relative humidity reaches a maximum of 86 per cent in August and then drops to a minimum of 51 per cent in November. At the Red Sea port of Massawa, in the recently federated territory of Eritrea, the maximum relative humidity is 76 per cent in February and the minimum is 51 per cent recorded in June.

The Ethiopians themselves recognize three zones, following the elevation, climate and vegetation: the *qolla,* below 5,000 feet, which is hot and sparsely settled; the *woina dega,* from 5,000 to 7,500 feet, which is the most favorable zone for occupation in the tropics; the *dega,* above 7,500 feet, which is cool and also suitable for agriculture.[4] Characteristic of this rugged relief are the *ambas,* steep bare mountain cones whose summits are crowned with plains furnished with abundant water for farming. It is on these *ambas* that Ethiopian independence has been maintained thruout the centuries. The geographical nature of the isolated kingdom has not only made transportation a major problem but also has impeded the diffusion of ideas.

There is widespread poverty thruout the country, altho potenti-

[1] One of the best accounts published to date: "Reale Società Geografica Italiana," *L'Africa Orientale,* Zanichelli Editore, Bologna, 1936, p. 407. More suitable as a manual, altho less erudite, is: E. Berlan, *Le Bassin du Nil,* Imprimerie de la Société de Publications Egyptiennes, Alexandrie, 1954, p. 220.

[2] Berlan, *op. cit.,* p. 36.

[3] David A. Talbot, *Contemporary Ethiopia,* Philosophical Library, New York, 1952, pp. 267. Talbot says that the mean maximum temperature and mean minimum temperature in Addis Ababa are 75.2 degrees F. and 47.8 degrees F. (p. 12). These figures are probably based on Italian observations from 1936 to 1941 and on recent observations made by Ethiopian Air Lines Inc. The author has on several occasions seen evidence of light frost in December and January in the uplands.

[4] This Ethiopian division was first noted by the Italians. Pietro Valle, *Geografia dell'Abissinia,* Barbèra, Firenze, 1787, p. 92.

ally there is great wealth. Most of the people are engaged in subsistence agriculture. Altho farming methods are still extremely primitive, nature is generous and there is little starvation; malnutrition, on the other hand, is widespread and can be attributed largely to improper diet (primarily due to inadequate education) and to prolonged fasting. As yet there is but limited commercial production from the land.

AGRICULTURE

Ethiopian agriculture, altho essentially a self-sufficing "garden-type," is well developed for it permits the support of a population estimated at upwards of 15 million.[5] It would seem that this type of agriculture will continue until markets for surpluses exist, suitable methods of surplus production are increased, and transportation facilities are greatly improved. Significant promise lies in the fact that the soil is particularly fertile. The Danakil Depression and the Somali area, a hot low-lying region, offer but slight attraction. In this semi-desert region the nomadic inhabitants depend on their flocks and herds for a livelihood. Here the principal problem is the obtaining of an adequate water supply. All the animals, and many of the insects, contribute to the human diet. With proper irrigation, conservation of existing water supplies, this region could produce citrus fruits, tobacco, cotton, and cereals.

The "Wine Highland" is more suited to intensive agriculture and grazing. A marked seasonal periodicity of precipitation permits the growth of maize, durra, wheat, barley, tieff, cotton and sugar-cane, and permits the development of limited types of forests. Pastoral activities in this region are organized primarily on a subsistence, rather than a commercial, basis. Along the lower mountain slopes the remarkably long-horned Galla cattle find good pasture.

On the true highlands or *dega,* farming more closely resembles that of other temperate regions of the world. Peppers and a few vegetables are grown as well as the usual cereal crops. Tieff, a pinkhead type of millet, is the common bread grain. Two or three crops are produced each year. The farms are all small, no machinery is used and the production of surpluses is almost unknown. Fields are tilled with a crude hoe, a two-pronged metal-tipped ploughing stick or a primitive branch plough drawn by a team of

[5] Registration for the September, 1957 elections will provide Ethiopia with the first census.

zebu oxen. Maize is dried in the husks in the fields and is then stored in mud bins with thatched roofs, along with the other cereals.

Ethiopia is the home of coffee; the plant is believed to have been named after the province of Kaffa, where it still grows wild in the forests. The present day coffee forests flourish on volcanic soils consisting of recently decomposed lavas and ashes. The plateau topography provides the essential water drainage. Convectional rains, which are common in southwestern Ethiopia, allow much sunshine and make cultivation not too difficult. The distinct dry season is favorable for the preparation of the coffee for market. Most of Ethiopia's coffee, even that grown on plantations started by Italians in the eastern region of Harar, is used as a "filler," but it could be developed for select markets in the same way that "long bean Mocha" has made a name for itself.

American technical teams working thru the Imperial Agricultural and Mechanical School in Jimma (population approximately 45,000) and F.A.O. experts have encouraged the cultivation of cotton in the native economy. At present only short fiber cotton of medium quality, suitable only for low grades of cloth, is grown. Cotton seems to do well. Labor for weeding, cultivating and picking is cheap. Also, cotton clothing is desirable for the natives as it is easily washed, it is cheap, and it is not subject to destruction by moths.

With about 80 per cent of the people engaged in subsistence agriculture, land tenure is of great importance. "There are seldom two places where the same terms are used for similar description of land tenure."[6] Landlordism best summarizes the situation. Land is generally unmeasured and unregistered, favoring the exploitation of the tenants, but curiously enough sometimes rented by the same family for a number of generations. Influential persons, the Imperial family and the state Ethiopian Orthodox Church own large tracts of land. The individual peasant's interest in the improvement of the land is at a very low level.[7]

Houses

Houses, of course, vary with the tribes and regions. On the central highlands the huts are circular mud-walled dwellings with

[6] Nathan Marein, *The Judicial System and Laws of Ethiopia*, Royal Netherlands Print & Lythographic Co., Rotterdam, 1951, p. 195.

[7] Carlo Manetti, *Etiopia Economica*, Bemporad & F., Firenze, 1936, p. 194.

thatched roofs supported by a single eucalyptus pole. In some regions the walls are made of unhewn stones, while in the lowlands a hemispherical domed grass hut is the usual shelter.[8] Furniture consists of a few hides scattered on the floor, a crude frame bed and a wooden chest for storing the few valuables. The hut is usually surrounded by a high stone or thorn fence to keep the animals in and hyenas out at night. Each compound of huts is inhabited by numerous lean and ill-tempered dogs. Under the protruding thatch roofs a few small ill-fed chickens find a roost.

Food

Slightly roasted beef and mutton, milk, rancid butter, curds, cooked cereals, honey, coffee and barley beer are the chief foods. Pork is abhorred on religious grounds; the Galla tribes believe it will cause tooth decay. All food is heavily spiced, particularly with the small fiery pepper called *berberé*. Cooking oil is obtained from the neuk plant (*Guizotia abyssinica*). Hydromel is flavored with the leaves of the geshio plant (*Rhamnus prinoides*). The people generally eat few green vegetables or fresh fruits, altho these will grow reasonably well in most regions. The tradition that a laborer can work best on a cereal diet is tenaciously held. Even in the region of Harar, where Italian plantation methods (irrigation, interculture, rotation, seed selection and terracing) have caught on to some extent, the bulk of the area is devoted to "chat." The leaves of this plant, scientifically known as *catha edulis*, are chewed by the Muslims and seem to produce a type of intoxication. Food is preserved by salting, smoking, souring and drying. Eggs are preserved in a mixture of beeswax and crude simsim oil.

Mining

In Addis Ababa stories are current of fabulous gold mines worked by prisoner labor, of untapped oil reserves, and of new finds of uranium in the semi-desert region of the south. The truth of the matter seems to be that little reconnaissance and prospecting has been carried on in the Horn of Africa. There has not as yet been a complete and systematic geological mapping of the country,

[8] Altho dealing specifically with the largest tribe in Ethiopia, the Galla, a fairly complete report on Ethiopian life is to be found in: C. J. Jaenen, "The Galla or Oromo of East Africa," *Southwestern Journal of Anthropology*, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, Summer, 1956, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp. 171-192.

and the principal emphasis, even during the Fascist occupation of 1935-1941, has been on the location and production of precious metals. Gold is found in abundance in the schists and granites of Eritrea, in the various tributaries of the Dawa River (particularly in the Adola region), and in the western region bordering the Sudan.

Even at Adola, where state prisoners are said to produce about 5,000 ounces of gold per month, methods are primitive. Pits are sunk thru the four or five yards of barren clay over-burden and then the underlying gold-bearing gravel, about one yard thick, is extracted and panned. The second most important placer mines are found in the western provinces bordering the Sudan. Most of the streams which descend from the massive Ethiopian Plateau have great deposits of gold because the primary veins in the highlands are decomposed and are carried down and redeposited in the alluvials. The local inhabitants have for generations panned the sand and gravel of these streams for gold.

Another important mining center is Yubdo in the western part of the country. At Yubdo large quantities of platinum are found in the dunite core which is surrounded by a practically continuous belt of pyroxenites and gabbros. The method of exploitation is by "ground sluicing," or conducting water by means of canals to the area to be washed.

Altho there are numerous reported and verified occurrences of nonprecious metals within the borders of the country, there is little evidence of exploitation. The administration does not grant very favorable concessions to foreign companies. There is no organized attempt to acquaint foreign investors with the possibilities that exist. So while the mineral deposits merit further investigation, the administration cannot seem to free itself long enough of its suspicion of foreigners to grant its advisers the power to employ technicians who would develop as well as protect the government's interests during the lifetime of any concessions made.[9]

PEOPLE

Almost as varied as the resources it possesses are its peoples. The country presents a heterogeneous variety of ethnical, cultural and linguistic types which led the Italians to style it "un museo di

[9] C. J. Jaenen, "Mineral Resources of Ethiopia," *The Mines Magazine*, Colorado School of Mines, Vol. XLVI, No. 7, pp. 37-44.

popoli.'"[10] Estimates of the Ethiopian population vary, but it is generally believed that the dominating Amhara-Tigrean tribes compose only 32 per cent of the total population.[11] The Galla of the south and southwest are the largest ethnic group, making up 42 per cent of the total population. Somalis account for about 6 per cent, Danakil 2 per cent and Nilotic tribes along the Sudanese border about 7 per cent. There are about 18,000 foreigners in the country who represent almost the total professional and skilled labor classes. Greeks and Armenians operate most of the commercial establishments and such small industries as exist. The Italians, altho expropriated, provide most of the skilled labor. Numerous Swedes, Canadians, and Americans serve in the civil service.

Some 40 languages and innumerable dialects are spoken in Ethiopia. Amharic, derived from classical Gheez which is still used in the liturgy of the national Orthodox Church, is imposed as the national language. The second language of education at present is English. French was popular before the Italian invasion. In the federated territory of Eritrea, Tigrinya and Arabic are the official languages. Travelers are of the opinion that the *lingua franca* is still Italian.

Ethiopia has been a part of the Near East since the visit of the Queen of Sheba to Jerusalem and the penetration of Greek vessels into the Red Sea. The Ethiopians stopped the Roman legions on the southern borders of Egypt. Christianity was introduced by Syrians (in the service of the Egyptian Coptic Church) in the fourth century and a sturdy national church became the chief support of the Solomonid kings. Isolated from Europe for many centuries, the Christian Ethiopian highlands successfully withstood internal disorders, Islamic invasions and stagnation, only to emerge a disunited and chaotic state when European states began their scramble for Africa.[12]

Menelik II, a wise Shoan chieftain, managed to set his house in order and successfully met the first threats of European imperial-

[10] C. Conti Rossini, *Etiopia e Genti d'Etiopia*, Bemporad, Firenze, 1937, p. vii.

[11] Fernando Santagata, *L'Harar*, Garzanti Editore, Milan, 1940, pp. 91-94. Lincoln de Castro, *L'Etiopia*, Hoepli, Milan, 1936, p. 301. Corrado Zoli, *L'Impero Italiano Dell'Africa Orientale*, Bollettino della Reale Societa Geografica Italiana, Firenze-Rome, Series VII, Vol. 1, No. 8, pp. 473-484.

[12] A. H. M. Jones & Elizabeth Monroe, *A History of Abyssinia*, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1935, p. 188.

ism. The boundaries of Ethiopia were pushed out to their present limits, several million people were incorporated into the rejuvenated Empire and then the task of consolidation and assimilation began.[13] After 1920, the Regent Tafari Makonnen inaugurated an ambitious and utopian Westernization programme. This renaissance was just beginning to change Ethiopia when Mussolini invaded the country. Since the Second World War, Regent Tafari, now the Emperor Haile Selassie, has been pushing ahead with remarkable vision and courage. Few states are changing as rapidly as Ethiopia. It is in the isolated plateau villages and farms that there has been no revolution yet. And in a sense this is the real Ethiopia—not the few Western-like towns.

OPEN HOUSE

MARIAN T. VANDENBERG AND M. EDITH TRUSSELL
Santa Rosa, California

Generally twice a year the schools throw open their doors at Open House and show their communities the work which they are doing. At most schools, these are times of special events: music programs, art exhibits, and so forth. Each teacher endeavors to show those phases of his program which would be most interesting to guests. With careful planning, the geography exhibit, whether in the elementary or the secondary school, can be one which the guests will remember with great satisfaction.

Most guests look for two things in the rooms which they visit: they like to see interesting and colorful displays, and they like to see some of the work which their children have done in class. Other criteria, tho important, are secondary to these.

ROOM ENVIRONMENT

In deciding what to display, most geography teachers will find that the problem is one of elimination from the myriad of work done during the year. Generally, we try to choose for display on tables and bulletin boards, a variety of the best work of individuals and groups.

For one bulletin board, a relief map done by a group can be used as the basis of an extremely interesting product map, and in-

[13] Mario Pigli, *L'Etiopia Nella Politica Europea*, C.E.D.A.M., Padova, 1936, p. 286.

dividuals can be asked to bring products (e.g. a few grains of various cereals, a toy automobile, and various other articles to illustrate what is produced in the areas studied), to be attached to the map or displayed on a table or bulletin board with ribbons running to the map. Such a map facilitates contributions by a number of students to the display. Small cards or a single placard can be used to acknowledge each student's part in the display.

Models and small relief maps done by individuals also interest the visitors and can be displayed on tables or benches. It helps to make a note of those which are to be used and ask the students, when they take their projects home, to save them and bring them back for Open House.

On the bulletin boards, we use large maps, murals, etc. for the most part but also reserve a section of one bulletin board for the smaller (in size) assignments such as themes, pictures, and maps. With both large and small displays, we try to use student work rather than commercial materials, and we use only one contribution from each student in order to assure wide participation. As far as possible, only superior work is displayed on the bulletin board. Most students can do something especially well; it is far better to look for the one thing which an individual does well than to display mediocre work simply for the sake of having each student represented.

On a table or on the teacher's desk, the books and instructional materials are displayed so that visitors can look at them. The lesson plan for the day may be written on the blackboard. Tho the teacher may ordinarily write only a brief agenda of the day's lesson on the board for student use, this lesson plan, for the visitors' benefit, should be more complete.

Usually the teacher's grade book is left "at home" during Open House. Parents, who wish to discuss their children's grades, are encouraged to make an appointment for a conference at a time when there will not be interruptions.

Of course, the teacher's desk is cleared of excess papers and folders and looks neat and orderly. A bouquet of flowers on the desk adds to the festive appearance of the room.

STUDENT WORK

Parents who come to Open House almost always wish to see their children's work. In order to be sure that everyone is represented, a folder can be prepared for each student and left on his

desk during Open House. Such folders can be prepared by a committee or by individual students. The teacher should check to be sure that no one is left out.

Into these folders should go: 1. all of the work for one week so that the parent can, if he wishes, compare his child's work with that of others; 2. some work which is representative of the student's best efforts; and 3. teacher comments. The teacher should not underestimate the effect of his written comments on papers; they are very important in the eyes of both students and parents.

Pupil Participation

If pupil participation in a classroom program is planned, it should be arranged so that there will be time when parents and teacher can visit and observe the displays. The program should not be permitted to dominate the evening.

Several kinds of programs and demonstrations can be used without disrupting other activities: 1. pupils can work at tables at the side of the room on individual projects such as models, pictures, relief maps; 2. using a "shadow box," a projector, and a student assistant, a film can be shown in a corner of the room; 3. a student assistant can run a tape recorded lesson for those visitors who would like to hear it; 4. a group can demonstrate an exercise, a game such as a map or geography game, a group discussion, skit, or short play. If a group demonstration is used, enough time should be allowed between performances so that guests can circulate and visit.

Reception

In order to facilitate greetings and to make the guests feel welcome, provision should be made for receiving them. Student hosts and hostesses are a big help in meeting people as they enter, conducting them to the guest register, labelling name tags, and so on. Some preparations beforehand facilitate these activities.

A guest register should be prepared and placed in a prominent place. The door to the classroom should be labelled with the name of the teacher and the subjects which he teaches. The teacher should wear a legible name tag, and name tags should be provided for guests; it is advisable to label the visitor's name tag with the name of his child as well as his own name. When possible, a student committee will sometimes prepare corsages for the visitors.

SUMMARY

Since Open House is a time for entertaining guests, we like to give a little extra thought to preparation for their coming. In our advance preparations, we try to plan an attractive display which will be widely representative of our students' work. We try also to show some of the daily work of each student.

By planning well in advance, we can assure ourselves of having available the materials which will be needed. Too, we can order the extra tables, benches, and beaverboard which will enable us to display most attractively the materials which we will use.

THE GEOGRAPHY NOTEBOOK: A PURPOSEFUL ACTIVITY

KATHERINE MONTGOMERY
Greensburg Junior-Senior High School
Greensburg, Pennsylvania

EUGENIA BAXTER
Carroll Junior High School
Monongahela, Pennsylvania

The preparation of a geography notebook is a type of culminating activity that, if it is meaningful, may have a number of values. It may be used in pupil-teacher planning to unify, in a tangible form, the major understandings that have been taught in the unit. It may aid the teacher in assessing the quality of her teaching and in discovering her own strengths and weaknesses in a particular area of geographical education. This self-evaluation is one of the most valuable traits a teacher should have. The notebook may be used also by the pupils as a measuring stick in evaluating their own growth in geographical understandings and skills.

Preparing a geography notebook is one of the many ways of developing a sense of responsibility and encouraging critical thinking, two of the needs so essential to the youth of today.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING A NOTEBOOK

A meaningful geography notebook should be judged by the following criteria: The notebook should show the pupils' originality

or creative ability in its organization and in the written material. It should contain a table of contents giving the page or pages on which specific materials are to be found. There must be a comprehensive bibliography stating clearly the sources of information. Each reference should give the name of the author, title of the article or book, the publisher, and the date of publication.

In addition to collecting and organizing this material in a worthwhile form the students' notebooks should show evidence of their ever increasing ability to select and use most effectively the tools of geographic education, such as the local environment, maps, pictures, charts, word-matter, graphs and statistics.

The notebook should also give evidence of the students' ability to discover geographic relationships and to grasp geographic concepts and understandings.

Minor points to be considered are the title and the cover. The title should be brief but meaningful. The cover should be attractive and durable.

Types of Geography Notebook

There are several types of worthwhile geography notebooks. As the old saying goes, "There is some good in the worst of us and some bad in the best of us," and so it is with the different types of notebooks. However, two excellent types are the research notebook and the resource notebook. The research notebook is valuable because it represents the organization of materials gained thru reading, observation and discussion usually centered around one or more definite problems such as: "What part does geography play in the location of hospitals in a particular area? and What does geography have to do with the choice of a career?"

The resource notebook is a summarization, in the pupils' own language of the geographic concepts, relationships and understandings developed thru the study of an entire unit. It may be referred to many times and is especially valuable for review purposes.

A notebook may also take the form of a diary in which the student records the events of an imaginary journey illustrated with drawings, maps and pictures. A notebook may be prepared as a series of articles written by a traveler or a newspaper reporter, similar to such articles as appear in current newspapers and magazines. The notebook may be a collection of articles, maps and pictures bearing on the region or county being studied. Such a note-

book should contain comments on each article, map and picture stating the relation of the article, map or picture to the unit and pointing out its geographic significance.

No doubt there are other types of worthwhile notebooks, but any notebook should be evaluated both by the students and the teacher, in terms of the criteria discussed.

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

Thomas A. Blair and Robert C. Fite. **Weather Elements.** Prentice-Hall, Inc. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., 1957. XIV and 414 pages with 145 figures, index. $6.75.

The widely used text in elementary meterology, prepared in 1937 by the late U. S. Weather Bureau Meterologist Blair, has been revised for its fourth edition by Dr. Robert C. Fite, professor of geography at the Oklahoma A. and M. College. The alterations incorporate some significant recent advances in knowledge. A chapter on climate and one on "World Weather Relations and Climate Influences" extend the utility of the volume. *Weather Elements* continues to be a commendable elementary text.

STEPHEN S. VISHER

Indiana University

Nicholas L. Fr.-Chirovsky. **The Economic Factors in the Growth of Russia.** Philosophical Library, New York, 1957, xv and 178 pages, with appendices, bibliography and index. $3.75.

This short, non-Marxist study of Russian growth and expansion, is designed to balance the rather lop-sided treatment that has been accorded Russian history in the United States. An analysis of the economic aspects of that growth, the author states, might greatly advance a correct understanding of the "spirit" of Russia. Accordingly, he divides his work into three main sections: Part I deals with the Economic Factors Building the National Psychology; Part II, the Economic Factors Impelling Territorial Expansion, and Part III, Economic Doctrine Masking the National Ambitions.

Professor Fr.-Chirovsky raises a number of debatable points, chief among which is his belief that the Kievan Rus state was Ukrainian. If Kiev was not the progenitor of the Muscovite principality which developed in the forests between the Oka and Volga rivers, neither was it Ukrainian. When it emerged on the banks of the Dnieper in the 9th century, it was essentially Eastern Slavic. Indeed, it is inaccurate to speak of Ukrainian—or even Russian for that matter—until after the Mongol period (13th-15th centuries) when such differentiation began to appear.

With the fall of Kiev to the Mongols, there was, according to orthodox historians, a significant migration northward to the "mesopotamia." The author denies any such migration, but offers no conclusive proof; yet, on pages 17-18, he writes that the Moscow principality "attracted an influx of migrants."

As a factor in Russian expansion, the author demolishes the theory of "the urge to the sea." But, his treatment of Russian growth in general is highly colored by the idea that the Russians are essentially evil and their nature and psychology basically imperialist. Oddly enough, in referring to the exploitation of national minorities, he cites primarily Soviet sources.

The foundations of the modern multi-national state were laid centuries before the Bolshevik Revolution, but there is room for intelligent and unemotional discussion as to the degree and nature of the continuity between the old and the new. This study loses its objectivity as a result of sweeping generalizations, often moral in tone, which in effect deny the need for discussion.

W. A. D. Jackson

University of Washington

John Hogdon Bradley. **World Geography,** revised. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1957. viii and 583 pages with maps, pictures, glossary and index. $4.80.

A first examination of *World Geography* by John H. Bradley brings to mind the experience of a methods class that set out to find the criteria upon which teachers in service select a geography text. One member reported interviewing a teacher who chose the biggest book on the list, on the theory that it should have the most in it. Mr. Bradley's book may not be the biggest in the field but it does impress one as having the most in it.

An introductory unit, which both begins and ends with a discussion of the importance of geographic knowledge to enlightened citizenship, includes an explanation of the method and purpose of geography as well as something of its history, development and organization.

Unit II devotes eight chapters to a world pattern of climatic regions with the physical and cultural characteristics of each.

Unit III presents land forms in two chapters, one on mountains and hills, and one on plains and plateaus.

In Unit IV the natural resources of the earth, plants, animals, soils and minerals, are treated.

Unit V is economic with a chapter on trade and manufacturing and another on transportation and communication.

The longest section in the book, Unit VI, is called The Geography of Nations. The present political divisions of the world are presented in six different groups.

Following Unit VI, which concludes the main part of the text, are more than thirty pages of supplementary material including a section on the use of maps, a glossary, an appendix, an index and a list of maps and diagrams.

The volume is fully illustrated with many pictures in attractive colors. There is at least one map for every three pages of text. Check-up questions for pupil guidance conclude each chapter.

In a brief preface the author offers the book as a basis for a thoro, realistic and dynamic course in world geography at secondary level. As a source book in the hands of a geographically educated teacher it could well fulfill this purpose.

Florence Cullin

North Texas State College

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Dear World History Teachers:

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NOTES AND NEWS

Members of the Research Committee of NCGE have granted two formal requests for research funds, Mrs. C. O. (Shirley) Johnson's (776 W. Coolidge, Phoenix, Arizona) problem "is to determine whether or not geography may be introduced in a meaningful manner in the first grade, and if successful, to offer a college course in primary geography at Arizona State College, Tempe, Arizona."

A grant has also been made to Jack R. Villmow, Department of Geography, Ohio State University. Dr. Villmow has a Ph.D. from Wisconsin and was at Wellesley with Miss Eiselen from 1951-1956. His problem is "To provide more meaningful instruction in the field of physical geography (meteorology-climatology).

The oil industry estimates that the demands, in the United States, for all petroleum liquids (exclusive of exports) will be approximately 10.6 million barrels daily by 1960, and 13.2 million by 1965. Production of liquid petroleum is expected to be 9 million barrels daily in 1960, and 10.8 million by 1965.

Current officers of the Virginia Geographical Society which is affiliated with the National Council of Geographic Education are: President, Charles F. Lane, Longwood College; Vice President, C. V. Crittenden, Charlottesville; Secretary, G. S. Dunbar, University of Virginia, Charlottesville; Treasurer, Virginia L. Pace, Venable School, Charlottesville; and Editor of the *Bulletin*, Raus M. Hansen, Madison College.

Current officers of the New Jersey Council of Geography Teachers are: President, Bertrand Boucher, State Teachers College, Montclair; Vice President, Richard Hewitt, Ewing Junior High School, Trenton; Constance Moy, Elementary School, Phillipsburg; Lillian W. Hollander, Main Street School, Manville; and Executive Committee Members, Frances Aldrich (Publicity), Box 53, Brant Beach; Paul Vouras, State Teachers College, Paterson; and Hugh Brooks, State Teachers College, Newark.

Have you seen *Successful Teaching with Globes* published by Denoyer-Geppert Company, 5235 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago 40, Illinois?

The United States National Commission for Unesco *Newsletter* points out that the United States is rapidly becoming the "World's Education Mecca" as illustrated by the following two paragraphs:

"The recently published results of an annual census conducted by the Institute of International Education reveals that foreign students are flocking to this country for study in ever-increasing numbers. During the academic year 1956-1957, more than 40,000 foreign students, representing 136 countries, were enrolled in American educational institutions.

"The importance attached to education by many Asian nations in their struggle for better living conditions was indicated by the fact that almost one third of the 40,666 students were from the Far East. Over one-fifth of the total was from Latin America. In the breakdown according to individual countries, Canada led the list with 5,379, followed by China (3,055) and Korea (2,307)."

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NOTES AND NEWS

A graduate fellowship in aviation geography has been established at the University of Pittsburgh by the Link Foundation, founded by the inventor of the famed Link Trainer used to train pilots. Students from all over the country are eligible to apply for the annual award.

The fellowship was announced by Dr. John Ceise, acting dean of the division of social sciences, and Dr. Norman Carls, professor of geography and head of the department. Dr. Carls will administer the fellowship.

The geography department each year will choose a student to receive the $1,500 stipend which accompanies the fellowship. In addition, the winner will receive a Graduate Council scholarship, awarded by the University, which will cover his tuition.

The International Finance Corporation (affiliated with World Bank) has announced a loan of two million U. S. dollars to Siemens do Brasil Companhia de Eltricidade, itself an affiliate of Siemens of Germany, which comprises Siemens & Halske A. G. and Siemens-Schuckertwerke A. G.

As noted in the New York *Journal of Commerce*, the first venture represents a Latin-American country—Brazil—in partnership with a European nation—West Germany.

Siemens do Brasil will use the money to help finance its new plant in the State of Sao Paulo to manufacture electric generating equipment, transformers, switchgear, and large motors for heavy industry. Telephone equipment manufacture is also being contemplated.

Is geography a science? If so, should geography be taught in the first grade?

According to a report published in the *Science News Letter* of July 20, 1957, "It is a little hard to believe, but kindergarten is not too early to start being a scientist! In fact, some experts think that youngsters should begin having fun with science in nursery school or, better yet, even earlier at home.

"In short, the people who are looking for the next generation of scientists have concluded that you have to start them young. In one survey, of 387 National Science Fair finalists, nearly 10% report their first interest in science was sparked by the time they entered elementary school. More than 50% feel their interest had already been captured by the time they were in sixth or seventh grade.

"So on the basis of a variety of studies, surveys and good guesses, educational experiments are being set up to provide as much encouragement as possible to hoped-for little scientists and technicians. These experiments are not limited to special schools or classes for gifted children, but, perhaps even more important, are geared to stimulate the interest of average children. No one can know how many of these may turn out to be productive scientists or the competent technicians and laboratory assistants we need in such numbers."

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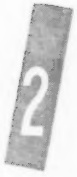

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